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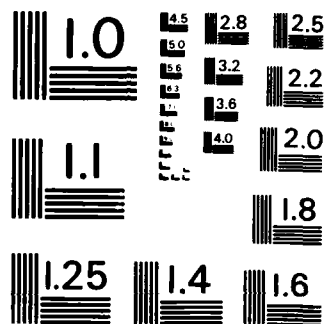
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# THE EFFECT OF SYSTEM WORKLOAD ON ERROR LATENCY: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

RAM CHILLAREGE  
RAVISHANKAR K. IYER

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

There is now considerable experimental evidence to show that computer reliability is a dynamic function of system activity (as measured by the workload). Experimental studies on a number of machines, with varying configurations, [Butner 80], [Iyer 82a], [Iyer 82b] (on IBM machines) and [Castillo 80], [Castillo 81], [Castillo 82] (on DEC machines) provide evidence that CPU and memory failure rates increase exponentially as the system workload approaches saturation. i.e. there is a threshold beyond which an increase in workload results in a non-linear increase in the error rate. Measurements show that the increase in the error rate can be more than two orders in magnitude. This is an important issue since it affects both reliability and performance aspects of computer systems. It suggests that it is not useful to push a system close to its performance limits since the gain in performance is more than offset by the loss in reliability, as end points are reached.

Two possible reasons for the observed workload/failure dependency are thought to be: discovery of latent errors [Iyer 82] and stresses imposed by high currents and voltages.<sup>1</sup> Many failures can only be detected when a particular module or subsystem is "exercised." Thus, although the failures may not be caused by increased utilization, they are "revealed" by this factor. The time between the occurrence of a failure and its manifestation as a system error has been referred to as "error latency" [Shedletsky 73]. The latent discovery effect can cause a noticeably high error rate during high workloads periods. A theoretical random walk model to describe this dependency is discussed in [Guther 80].

However, to-date no measure of the relative contributions of the two possible effects discussed above exist. This is an important issue because an engineering solution depends on which of the two factors is predominant. For example, if latent discovery is the predominant effect,

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<sup>1</sup>As the activity increases within a computer the higher rates of exercise of the gates can lead to higher temperatures at the devices themselves due to switching-induced transients resulting in a higher failure rate. A model based on this is given in [Cortes 84].



new research into workload scheduling and periodic scrubbing is suggested. If however, this is not so we have to consider new designs which take workload patterns into account (much the same way as instruction mixes) in developing new designs.

There is no accurate technique for determining error latency. The only available study is [McGough 81 & 83] which performed a gate-level emulation of an avionic mini processor. A set of a specific programs were used to exercise the machine. The programs do not however, represent a real workload environment. Therefore both the methodology and results are not generally applicable.

We propose a methodology to study the latency characteristics of medium to large computer systems. This is the first attempt at jointly studying error latency and workload variations in a full production environment. The technique is developed using real data from a VAX 11/780 timeshared system at the University of Illinois, Coordinated Science Laboratory. The system runs the UNIX operating system Ver 4.2, and is used mostly for scientific computing and for a variety of miscellaneous data processing activities. The measurements and analysis show a strong relationship between system workload and the Error Latency in the unpagged portion of memory. The mean Error Latency varies nearly by a 1 to 10 ratio between high and low workload. Distributions of error latency are generated by seeding errors under varying workload conditions. The resulting family of error latency distributions illustrate that latency is not so much a function of when in time an error occurred but rather a function of the workload that followed the error. The methodology is not system specific and has general applicability.

## 2. INSTRUMENTATION

For the purposes of this study we concentrated on memory activity. An important reason for this was that previous studies show that the memory subsystem has the largest number of errors [Rossetti 81] [Iyer 83].

The VAX 11/780 system has 4 MByte of main memory, three 300 M Byte disk drives, and has during the peak hours about 20 to 25 interactive users. The backplane of the VAX CPU was probed so as to obtain data on memory activity. This data was sampled by the instrumentation connected to the backplane, and forms the basis for the analysis from which error latency is measured.

The VAX central processor and the memory subsystem are linked through a data path called the Synchronous Backplane Interconnect (SBI). Figure 1 shows the organization of the machine. The details of the machine organization are in [DEC 80a] and [DEC 80b]. The SBI is a parallel datapath which is multiplexed for address and data and uses a 200 nsec clock to achieve a maximum information transfer rate of 13.3 million bytes per sec.

The best approach for obtaining memory activity information is to monitor the SBI through which all transactions occur. High speed devices such as Disks, connect to the SBI through an interface called the Massbus Adapter. Unibus devices [DEC 80a] similarly connect to the SBI through a Unibus Adapter. Requests to memory can arise from either the CPU or from the I/O devices and all of them are transacted through the SBI. Monitoring the SBI therefore captures all requests to the memory subsystem. The address space on the SBI is partitioned so that addresses to the main memory subsystem, Unibus subsystem or other adapters are unique, permitting them to be individually extracted.

The SBI consists of 84 signal lines that belong to five different groups, namely, arbitration, information transfer, response, interrupt and control. The information transfer group with 46 signal lines contains the memory activity information. It is used to transfer addresses, data and

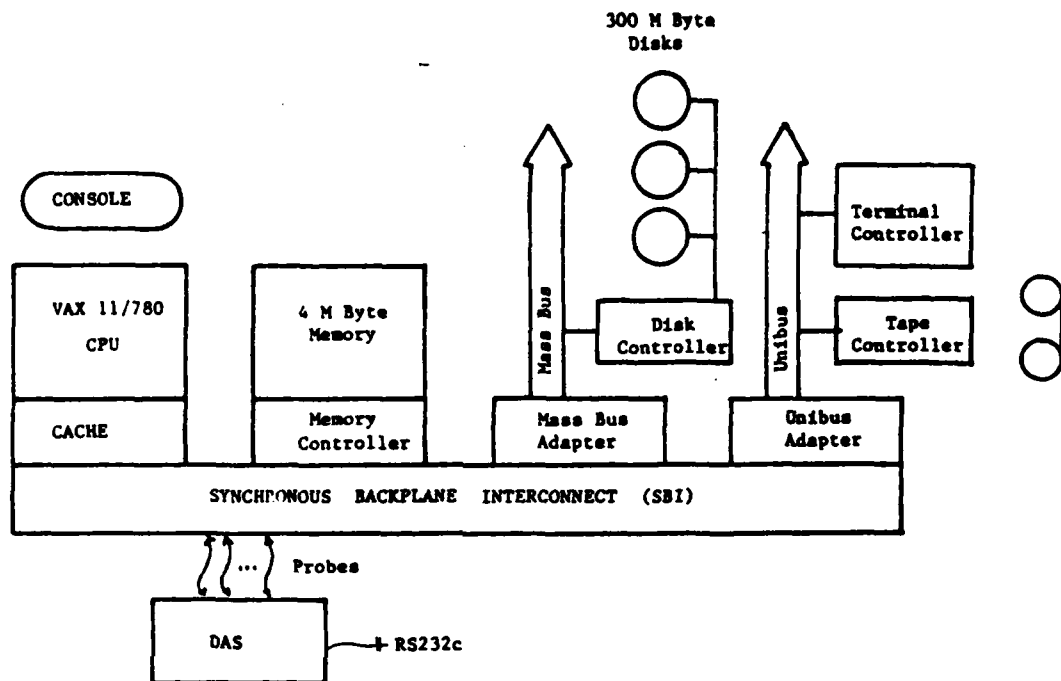


Figure 1. VAX 11/780 System Configuration

interrupt summary information. This group is subdivided into five fields that represent parity check (P), information tag (TAG), source or destination identification (ID), masks (MASKS), and 32 bits of information lines (B) as in Figure 2.

- (1) **P field:** The parity field of 2 bits provides even parity for detecting single bit errors in the information transfer group. One of the bits provides parity over the TAG, ID and MASK fields and the other over the B field.
- (2) **TAG field:** The TAG field is 3 bits wide and indicates the information type (being transmitted) on the information lines (B field). This field also determines the interpretation of the ID and the B fields. For example, when the tag code represents COMMAND



Figure 2. SBI Information Transfer group fields

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ADDRESS, the B field contains the address.

- (3) ID field: The ID field of 5 bits is used to identify the logical source of the data in a write command and the logical destination of the data in a read command. The address of the location is contained in the B field.
- (4) MASK field: The mask field is 4 bits wide and is used to specify operations on any or all bytes of the data in the B field. Each bit in the mask field corresponds to a particular byte in B.
- (5) B field: The B field is 32 bits wide (4 bytes) and is used to carry information/data. Depending on the TAG field the 32 bits are interpreted either as one data field of 32 bits or as containing two subfields: a FUNC field of 4 bits which identifies read or write mode and an ADDRESS field of 28 bits containing the physical address which can be either main memory or I/O.

## 2.1. Experimental Setup

A Tektronix Digital Analysis System (DAS) 9100 Series was used to monitor and sample data transfer activity on the SBL. The DAS probes used can strobe the data at speed up to 40 nsec which is faster than the clock speed of the SBI (200 nsec). The SBI signals are accessible at

the card edge of the SBI control cards [DEC c]. The data was read into the DAS using the SBI clock for external synchronization.

The experiment was controlled from the VAX with the aid of Tektronix 91DVV1 software [TEK 84] and some of our own programs. The software which controlled the experiment was so that it caused negligible overhead and did not bias the experiment. The DAS was periodically triggered to acquire data from the SBI, download the acquisition memory and time-stamp the data. This data was then preprocessed to make it compatible for subsequent input into statistical analysis programs and archived on tapes.

The instrumentation was tested for correct operation and acquisition. This was performed by taking the system down into single user operation, turning the cache memory off and running a test program that accesses specific locations of memory in sequence. Data collected on the DAS was then examined for correct acquisition against a known test program.

Two types of data are collected. The first involves logging transactions of every cycle on the SBI. We refer to this as *Regular Mode*. The DAS has a memory of 511 words, and therefore each sample contains the trace of 511 cycles on the SBI. Note that, not every cycle of the SBI contains a command/address, as some cycles may contain data and some may be idle. A sample of data acquired in *Regular Mode* is shown in Figure 3a. The first line contains a time stamp for the sample. Each line of data represents one SBI cycle. The data is in one's complement form. Note there are a number of idle cycles (all 1's). Figure 3b shows the decoded version of a single observation.

In certain types of experiments, such as the latency study, it is advantageous to produce a dense trace of addresses by storing only those cycles that contain command/address transmitted

<sup>2</sup>The DAS is programmable via an IEEE 488 interface, or an alternative serial line RS232c link to a host machine. We have it connected to the VAX via the serial line interface.

<sup>3</sup>The acquisition system has been tested for data bias against itself. This is done by externally triggering the DAS and acquiring the data and comparing memory usage distributions generated by this data with the distributions generated from automatically generated data. We find that the instrumentation is sound and does not indicate any significant influences of self-bias.

on the B lines. Toward this end a compressed mode acquisition was performed by collecting on those signals which transmitted a memory address. This is accomplished by generating a "store only" signal to the DAS by decoding the TAG field that contains a code to identify command/address transaction. In the Compressed Mode the DAS acquires 511 consecutive addresses that are generated on the SBL. Figure 3c shows a sample in the Compressed Mode

### 3. MEASUREMENT AND ANALYSIS

Recall that the experiment collects data on memory activity, e.g. physical memory address, access rate and read/write mode. For the purposes of this project we studied the region in memory where the OS resides. We looked at this region because errors in the operating system can be fatal. This also has the advantage of being the unpaged portion of memory hence provides an estimate of inherent latency characteristics unaffected by paging. The methodology however is equally valid for both the unpaged and paged portions of the memory.

The data acquisition was performed at intervals of 25 to 40 seconds per sample. This was found to be sufficiently frequent to provide an estimate of memory access patterns and usage. For this experiment, we acquired data for a number of different usage periods which include the varying workload environments. On this base, we implemented a methodology for accurately estimating error latency characteristics for different usage regions and workloads. In particular the effect of increasing the workload on error latency characteristics was also determined.

#### 3.1. Workload and Memory Usage Profiles

Recall that we were interested in estimating the errors discovered during the different workload environments and also the effect of a changing workload on error latency. Therefore

Fri Nov 23 11:28:59 CST 1984

PROBE: 3D 3C 3B 3A 2C 2B 2A COMMENTS

OBS

.15	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	idle
.16	10100101	10010101	11111010	01111111	11111111	11110011	10001111	cmd/adr
.17	11111011	00000010	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111011	11101111	
.18	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	idle
.19	00101010	01001100	11110100	01111111	11111111	11111011	10001111	cmd/adr
.20	11111001	11001001	10001010	10000011	11111111	11111011	11101111	
.21	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	11111111	idle

Figure 3a Acquired data in Regular Mode

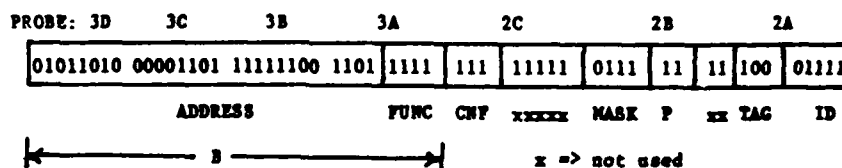


Figure 3b Decoding of the data fields

Fri Nov 23 12:15:11 CST 1984

PROBE: 3D 3C 3B 3A 2C 2B 2A COMMENTS

OBS

.136	11101001	10110100	11111011	01111111	11111111	11110011	10001111	cmd/adr
.137	10001111	00110110	11110100	11011111	11111111	00000011	10001111	cmd/adr
.138	10001110	00110110	11110100	11011111	11111111	00001011	10001111	cmd/adr
.139	01011010	00001101	11111100	11011111	11111111	01111111	10001111	cmd/adr
.140	10001111	00110110	11110100	11011111	11111111	00000011	10001111	cmd/adr

Figure 3. Acquired data in Compressed Mode

it was important to have an idea of possible variations in system workload. Figure 4 shows two workload parameters *CPU user* and *system* usage as a function of the time of day. *CPU user* usage represents the percent time spent by the CPU in executing user code and *CPU system* usage corresponds to the percent time spent executing system code. The data was collected by a modified Unix system utility.

These load measures are cyclic over a 24 hours period and forms a stationary pattern for the week-days. This pattern of workload is typical of many computer installations [Iyer 82] [Castillo 81]. Between 8am and 10am there is a sharp increase in workload as noticeable in Figure 4. This period of the day is of particular interest for determining how latency characteristics change with increasing workload. During the peak periods the machine has about 20 to 25 interactive users. The workload is mostly interactive but there is a certain amount of batch processing.

An analysis of the memory access data showed two distinct patterns in the unpagged area. A 300 byte region with very high usage is shown in Figure 5a and the rest is shown in Figure 5b. These are shown separately since together one totally dominates the other. The high usage region which is most likely the kernel accounts for approximately 70% of the references made to system memory. In each of these plots it was noticed that a sampling of 20 to 30 minutes was sufficient to obtain a stable pattern. Interestingly enough, the distribution shapes did not change appreciably with workload, i.e. the relative access probabilities remained the same although the access rates changed significantly.

### 3.2. Estimating Error Latency

For the purpose of this study we assume that the error rate is constant and can equally affect all memory locations. This implies that the workload does not cause any additional errors. It allows us to determine the intrinsic latency characteristics without being biased by the workload distributions. Another way to look at this is that we find the system error rate



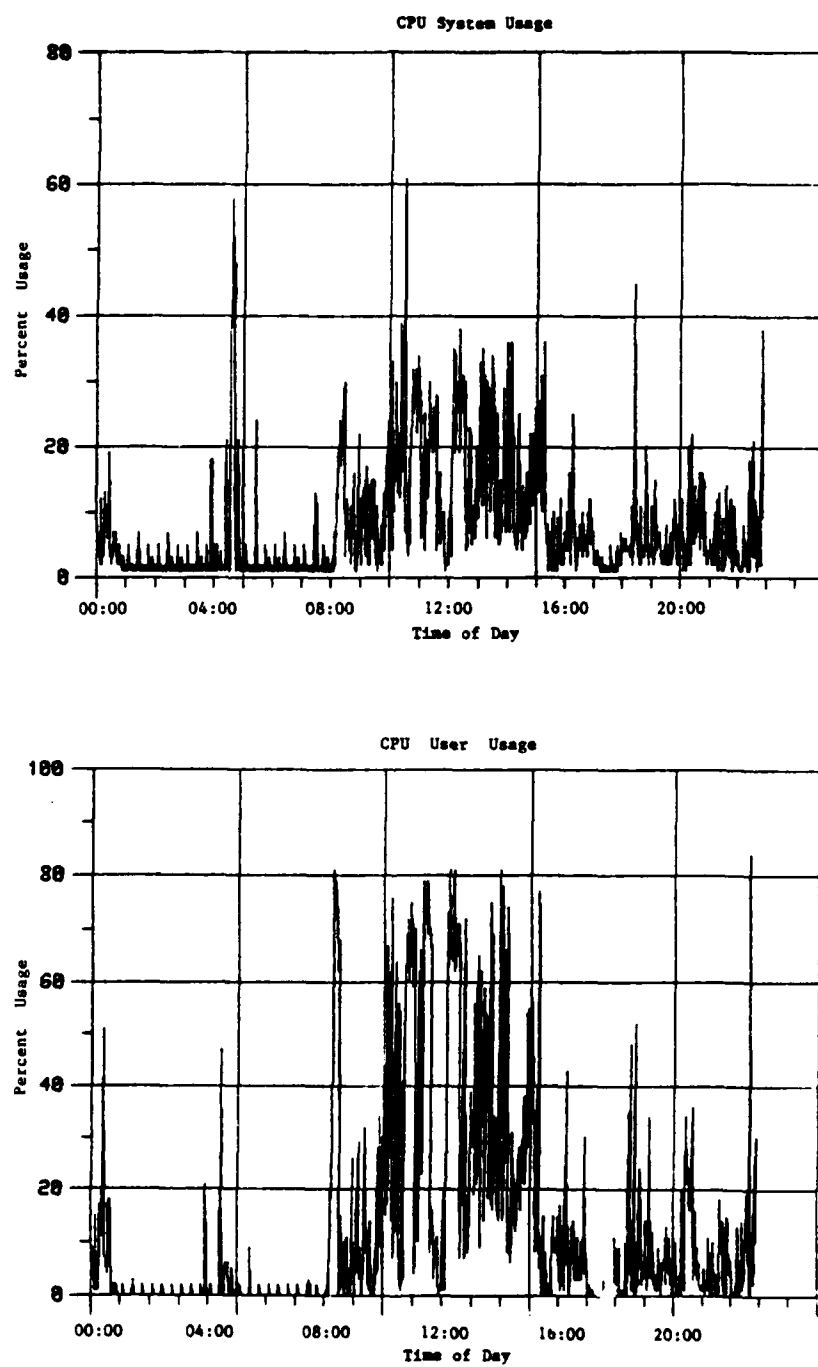


Figure 4. System workload

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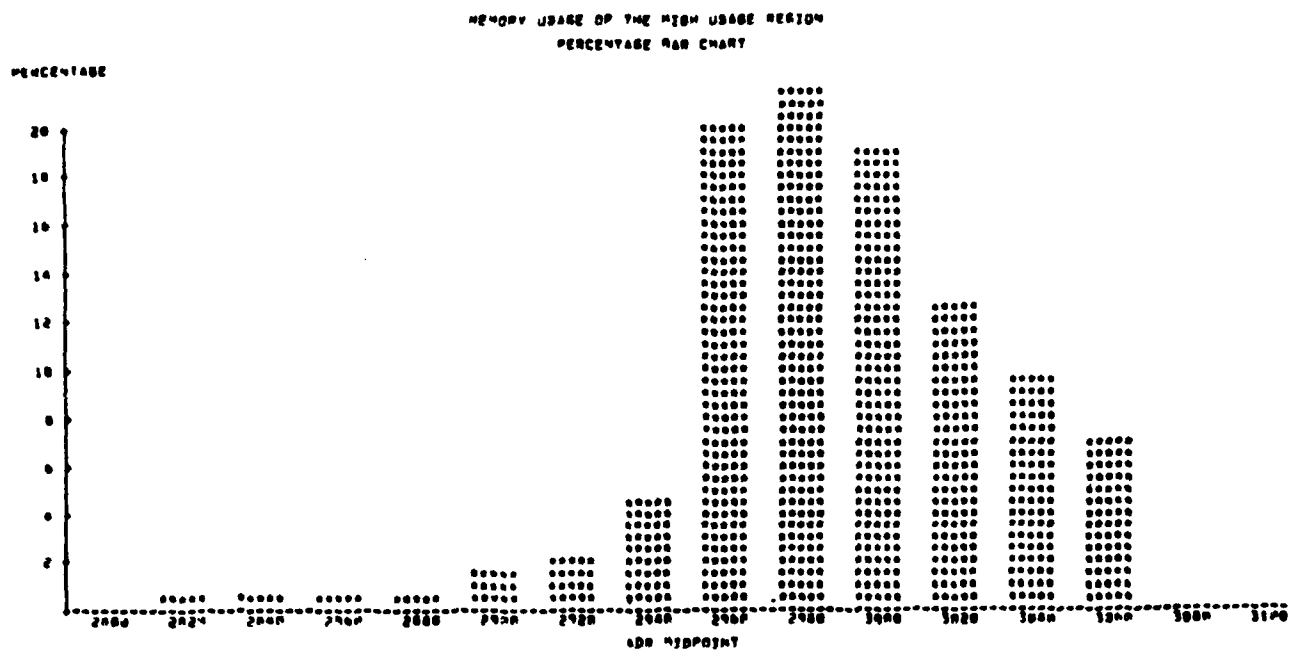


Figure 5. a

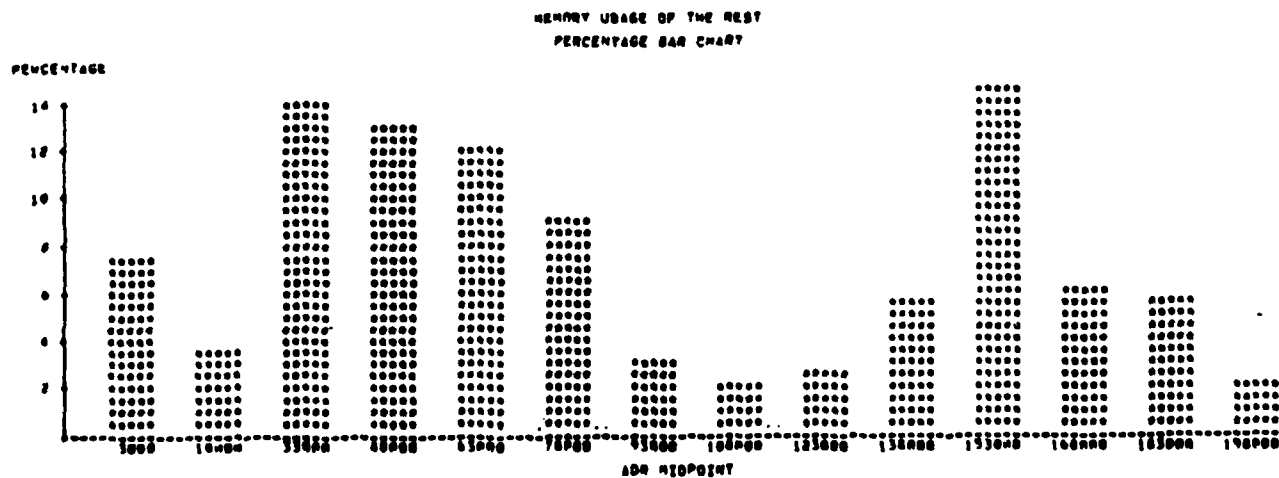


Figure 5. b

(distribution) contributed only by the latent discovery effect.

The memory addresses chosen to contain an error are picked from a uniform random distributions. However, if one intends to study the Error Latency given the assumption that increased memory usage increases the probability of error [Cortes 84] then the algorithm can be easily modified. The system memory has error detection and correction codes which corrects a single error and will detect up to two errors. An error is said to be discovered when the faulty memory location is read.

Figure 6 shows the algorithm used to generate error latency distributions. We commence by picking a random address of a memory location, say  $m_1$  and assume that it has an error, say  $e_1$ . This is termed *seeding* an error. The error also has a time associated with it, say  $t_1$ . The data is now scanned to find the first *memory read* to the location  $m_1$ . This is when the error would be detected by the ECC circuitry. In Figure 6 location  $m_1$  has three memory reads to it. One before and two after the error  $e_1$ . Let  $t'_1$  be the time of the first memory read after the error. Then the latency of error  $e_1$  is  $l_1 = t'_1 - t_1$ . The same location may be reaccessed (as in the figure) but that amounts to rediscovery and is not a part of this latency study. If however, the data set does not contain a read to the memory location in error then it goes undetected and amounts to a miss. For example in Figure 6 error  $e_2$  is seeded on memory location  $m_2$ . However the data does not contain a read to  $m_2$  and therefore  $e_2$  is undiscovered. The misses are used to estimate the percentage of undiscovered errors. This process can be repeated for a large number of errors yielding a latency time  $l_i$  for every random error  $e_i$  chosen. These different latency times now form a distribution of the error latency. The misses generated by this process are used to determine the percentage of undiscovered errors.

### 3.3. Algorithm Implementation

Error seeding was the means by which workload effects on latency was studied. The error seeding time was varied over the entire usage period to investigate the change in latency with

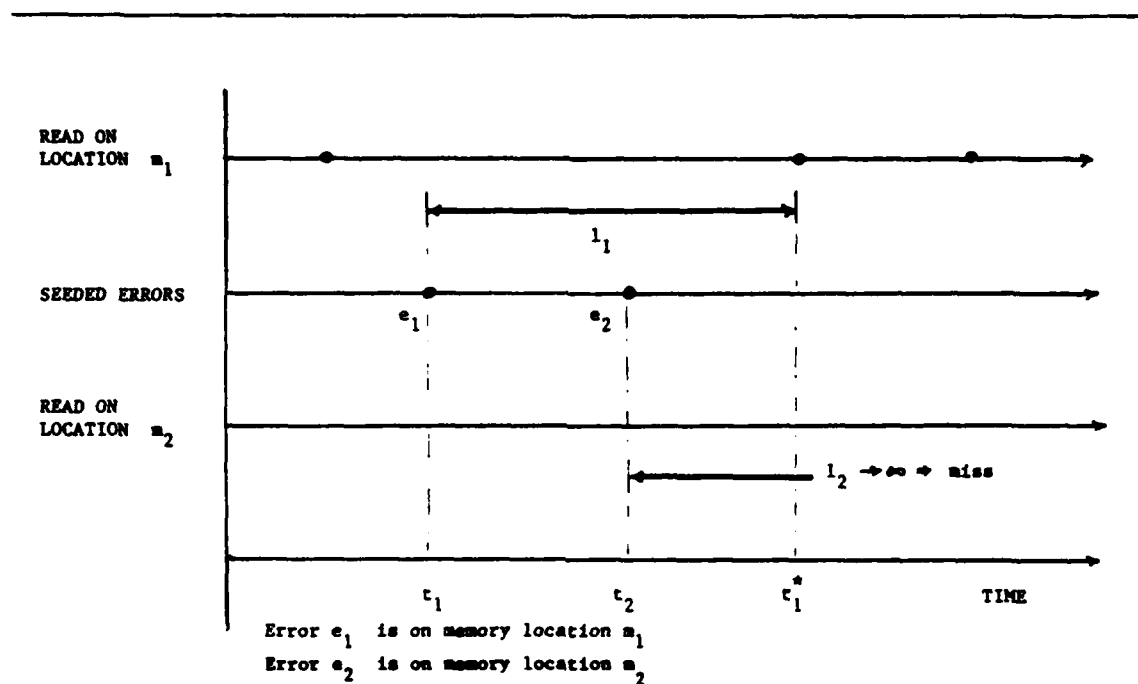


Figure 6. Latency time calculation

workload. To be able to determine the first time that the location is accessed the data should be available past the error instant for a few hours. Rather than seed all the errors at the same time, we seeded the errors in a 1 hour interval. The interval was so that the workload did not change appreciably over this period. This interval is referred to as the *error seeding window*. This is now useful in studying different workload environments by choosing the error seeding window to lie within the workload period.

To keep the computation tractable we define a *class* as a set of neighboring memory locations. Wherein, the access to any member of the class is considered equivalent to access of the whole class. The class serves two purposes. Firstly, it reduces the number of memory locations that one has to compute on. The number of memory locations is very large and the implementation of the above algorithm would necessitate a lot of computation. Secondly, it caters for the

fact that the sampled data although is representative of the memory access pattern need not contain every distinct address that is generated. The class size is chosen small enough so that the memory usage within a class is uniform (i.e. each location in a class has similar access probability) and large enough so that the computation is still tractable. We experimented with class sizes varying from  $\frac{1}{4}$  page to 3 pages and found that it did not appreciably change the distribution and the median shifted by less than 5%. For a fixed class size, the percentage of misses remained almost constant.

#### 4. ERROR LATENCY DISTRIBUTIONS

We wished to determine error latency characteristics for low, high and intermediate workload periods. The movement of the error seeding window was the vehicle by which latency characteristics were investigated. The error seeding window was shifted across the time of day axis to obtain a family of distributions. The moving of the window provides an insight into the nature of the error latency distribution and isolates the effect of workload. The change in these distributions then reflects the effect of changing workload on error latency. We keep moving the window until a cyclic behavior is seen in the distributions (which is over a 24 hour period in our data).

To determine the consequences of workload variations we consider a large span of time which includes the low and high workload periods. Recall from Figure 4 that from midnight to 7 am is the low workload, 8 to 10 am has an increasing workload (intermediate) with a peak around 11. The intermediate period where workload changes from low to high is of particular interest. Since the system workload forms a cyclic pattern every day we expect that a 24 hour observation of error seeding to be sufficient. This allows studying of both low and high workload periods. As the workload is stable for a large length of time the error seeding time

will not appreciable change the distribution so long as the measurement period is sufficiently larger than the latency period.

Figure 7 shows the latency distribution generated with a one hour error seeding window starting at midnight. The distribution is bi-modal with the second mode being the larger of the two. The initial peak corresponds to a small period of high activity which usually occurs around midnight. Within the first hour about 10% of the detected errors are found. The bulk of the errors, (70%) are found in the second mode. There is a sharp increase in the number of errors being detected from about 8 hours after the seeding. This corresponds to 8 am (real time of day) which is the start of the increasing workload period. The mean latency is 8:03 h:m. Listed in the figure are the percentages which correspond to detected errors only. Nearly 25% of the errors that are seeded were undetected. This figure of 25% miss is almost constant for all the following latency distribution.

Figure 8 shows a similar latency distribution but with the error seeding window shifted in time towards the increasing workload. In Figure 8 the error seeding window it is between 4 and 5 am. Notice that the two modes have begun coming closer. It is interesting to note that the movement of the window forward in time has caused a decrease in the mean latency. This is caused by the movement of the second increase in error discovery (beginning of the second mode) closer and closer to the seeding time (shorter latency). The time of the sharp increase corresponds to 8 am, when workload starts to increase. Also note that there is dip in the distribution after the mode. This corresponds to a lull in the activity that occurs around 10:30 or so on our system.<sup>4</sup> This clearly shows the influence of workload in determining error latency.

Figure 9 has errors seeded at 8 am (start of the rise in workload) and Figure 10 has errors seeded at 12 pm (well into the high workload period). In contrast to Figure 7 it is seen that the mean error latency is now (Fig 10) down to 44 mins and that 70% of the detected errors are

<sup>4</sup>In our system which is largely used by graduate students, their day starts at around 10:30 am and continues past 12:30 pm or so. The early morning (8 am) rise in activity is due to secretarial and staff users.

ERROR LATENCY DISTRIBUTION  
ERROR SEEDING WINDOW FROM 00:00:00 TO 01:00:00

16

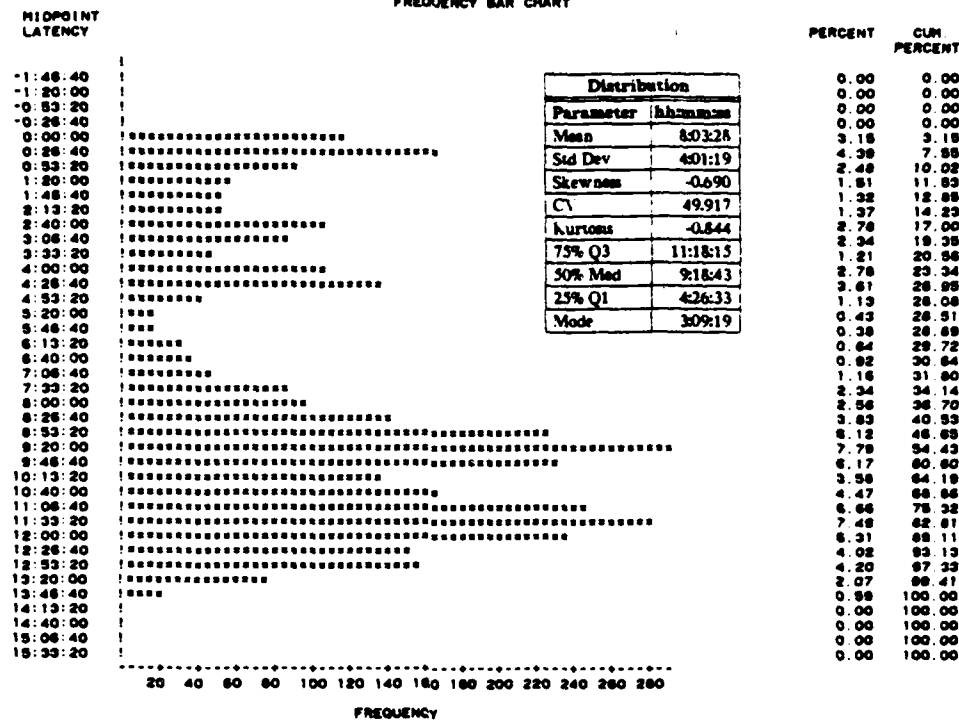


Figure 7

ERROR LATENCY DISTRIBUTION  
ERROR SEEDING WINDOW FROM 04:00:00 TO 05:00:00

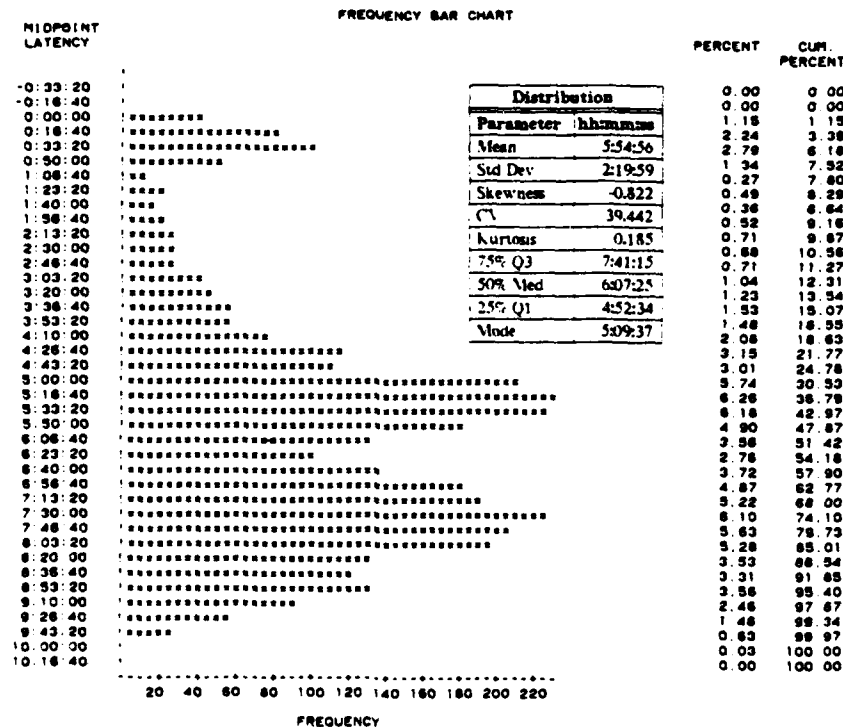


Figure 8

ERROR LATENCY DISTRIBUTION  
ERROR SEEDING WINDOW FROM 08:00:00 TO 09:00:00

FREQUENCY BAR CHART

17

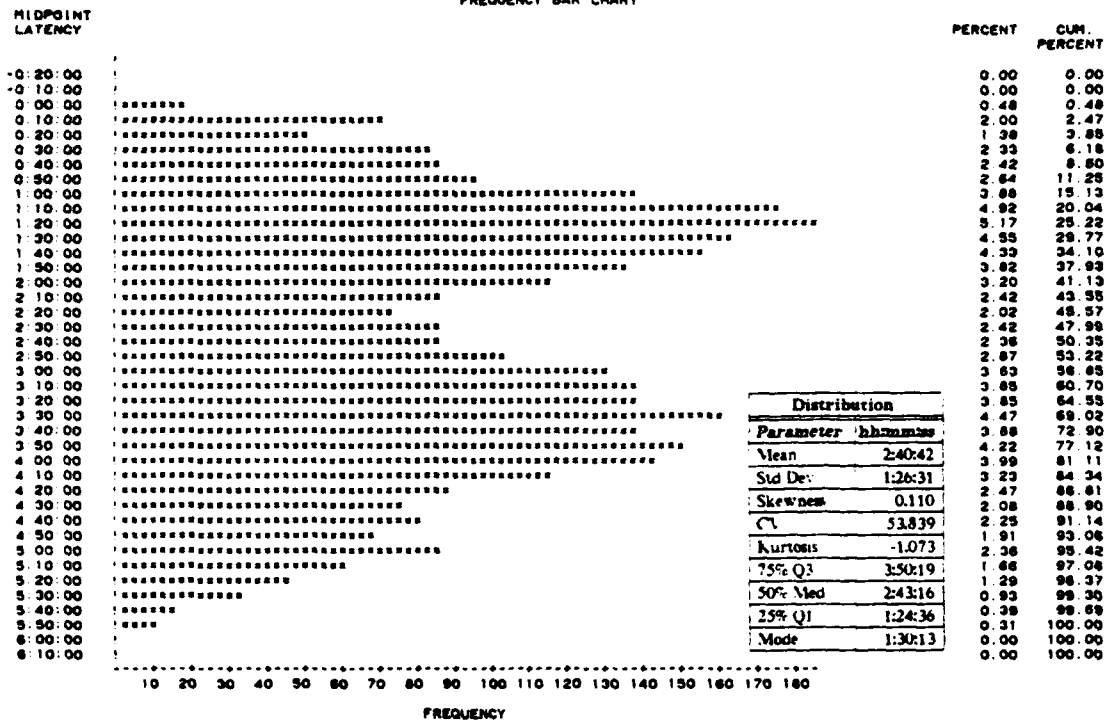


Figure 9

ERROR LATENCY DISTRIBUTION  
ERROR SEEDING WINDOW FROM 12:00:00 TO 13:00:00

FREQUENCY BAR CHART

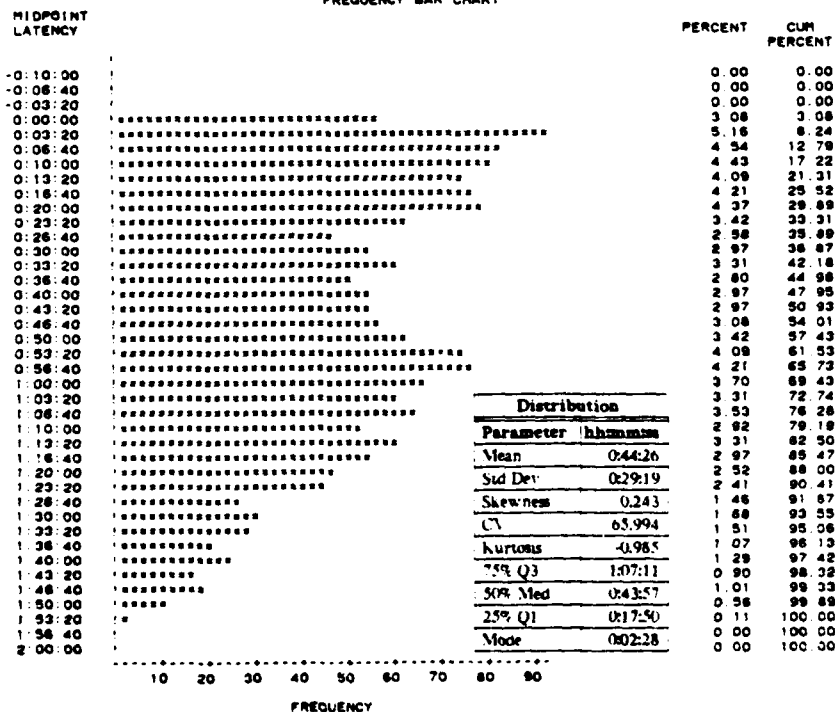


Figure 10



discovered in the 1st hour. Thus errors occurring at low workload are discovered within 10 hours (on the average) versus only 1 hour for errors occurring at high workload.

#### 4.1. Discussion of Results

The family of distributions generated by moving the error seeding window reveal a number of interesting issues.

It is seen that error latency is not so much a function of when in time the error occurred but rather a function of the workload that followed the occurrence of the error. A mode in the error latency distribution always occurs when there is a rise in system workload. Thus any rise in the workload results in a mode appearing in the latency distribution. A steady rise in workloads sweeps the errors out (higher error discovery) after which few if error remain to be discovered (low error discovery). The results suggest that an increase in workload causes a temporary increase the observed error rate. The error rate drops again after the errors have been discovered.

These results, apart from providing insight into the latency behavior, also suggest that the safest period for computing (assuming only latency effects) is at the tail end of an increasing workload. Since errors that have occurred in the past would have been discovered and the error rate will be nearly constant. The SLAC [Iyer 82b] and CMU [Castillo 81] results however show a sustained increase in the error rate as workload increases. Thus we have fresh evidence to suggest that there is more to a workload/error relationship than simply a latent discovery effect. This work however serves to isolate the impact of error latency which was not possible so far.

## 5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this report we established a methodology for determining and characterizing error latency. The method is based on real workload data gathered by an experiment instrumented on a VAX 11/780 during the normal workload cycle of the installation. Distributions of error latency were generated by seeding errors under varying workload conditions. The family of error latency distributions obtained illustrate that error latency is not so much a function of when in time an error occurred but rather a function of the workload that followed the error. The study finds that the mean error latency varies by a 10 to 1 between low and high workloads. The methodology is not restricted to systems studied and has general applicability.

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